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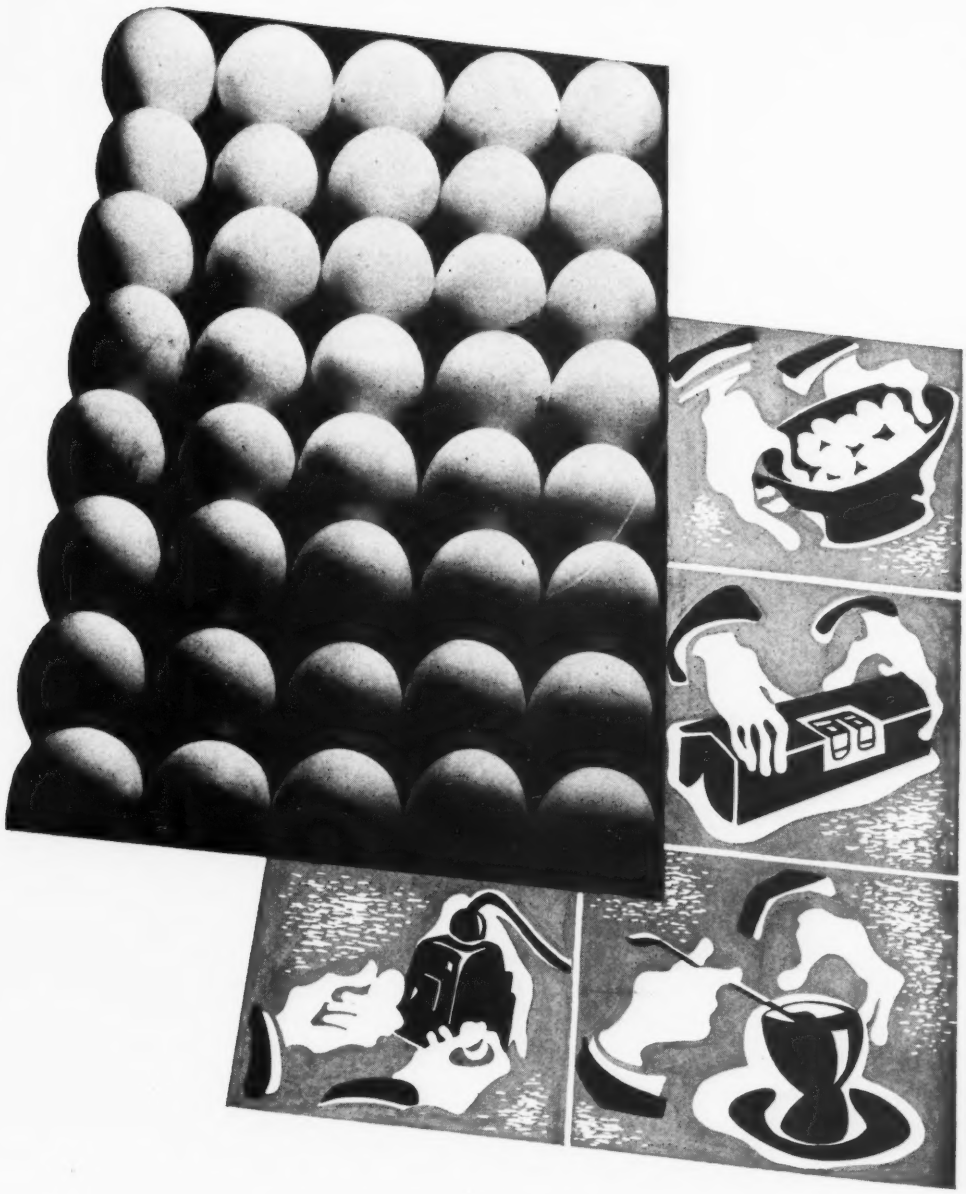

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Booby trapping eggs

• A fresh egg, you might think offhand, is a fresh egg.

Not so, the same egg can be fresh in one State and not fresh in another. In one State, for example, eggs may be labeled fresh if they are less than 5 days old. In another an egg is fresh if it has not been in storage for longer than 45 days and is Grade A or better in quality. In a third State a fresh egg is an egg that is sound, sweet, clean, and full. In a fourth State a Grade A egg less than 14 days old is fresh.

That is just the beginning of the confusion egg laws have created. Depending on the State you live in, "Large" on a carton of eggs may mean that individual eggs may weigh anywhere from 1⅞ to 2 ounces minimum up to 3 ounces; Small eggs may weigh from 16 to 20½ ounces a dozen, with no limits for individual eggs; Medium eggs may weigh from 20 to 21 ounces a dozen, with no minimum or maximum limits for individual eggs; and other egg-size terms have the same kind of quicksilvery inexactness. Then, of course, in some States no attempt has been made at all to define the size terms, so they can mean anything.

About two-thirds of the States have egg grade laws. Of these States, 26 use superseded Federal definitions as the basis of their regulations, 5 use grades that are based on definitions of local creation which are variable, while 8 adopted the procedure of following the U. S. Grade definitions in their laws.

All these examples of egg law confusion, according to a report on egg-marketing problems by the War Food Administration, reflect the situation as it existed at the end of 1944. No substantial change has taken place since then.

Egg laws, it should be noted, are no exception; similar laws apply to almost all food products. Legislators, in a well-intentioned effort to do something for producers or consumers in their States, put their specific remedies on the law books, forgetting in this age of One World that this is also One Country and not 48 separate principalities. The result is that producers and distributors of eggs and other farm products must be high hurdlers and obstacle runners to get their products to consumers through the maze of conflicting market regulations. When farm products must run obstacle races to get to city markets they cost more. The additional cost doesn't make the products any better in the end, and it doesn't get back to the producer. It is an additional, unproductive charge which reduces farm incomes and adds to consumer food costs and confusion.

Take the provision in one State which requires that the shell of every egg coming into that State from another State must be stamped with the name of the shipping State preceded by the word "Shipped." Does that make the egg taste any better?

In another State every egg that has been subjected to refrigeration for any length of time must have the word "storage" stamped on the eggshell in letters ¼-inch high.

Sensible egg regulations would lubricate egg marketing by: (1) Preventing the sale of inedible eggs as food; and (2) identifying egg quality and weight so that every purchaser would know precisely the quality and weight of the egg she is buying.

Just how to clear the jungle of law that has overgrown marketing has been the subject of study by Federal and State marketing experts for a dozen years.

If the Federal specifications were universally adopted, eggs could be graded and packaged in any State in the Union and everyone who handled them, down to the housewife who bought them finally would know that the Grade A identified eggs that could be eaten pleasurably for breakfast, that "Large" on the label meant that the eggs weighed from 24 to 26 ounces per dozen, and that the date on the label referred to the day the eggs were actually graded for quality.

As things stand now, a required egg label in one State may be illegal in another State. Indeed, if some of these laws were actually enforced, an egg shipper couldn't stay out of the courts.

Federal grades for eggs at the present time are used in some States under a cooperative relationship between the U. S. Department of Agriculture and the State agencies. The program, which is voluntary, provides for the training and licensing of egg graders by the Federal Government. Their work, however, is done under State supervision.

Farm and city organizations interested in the emergence of an era in which producers receive a fair return for providing everyone with a nutritious, satisfying diet, might make it their job to look into the laws in their States which apply to the marketing of farm products.

When they find laws which put booby traps in the market, they might consider how to go about getting them repealed or replaced with regulations which reflect postwar needs instead of prewar prejudice.

And when new laws are up for consideration in a State, the report on egg marketing suggests that they be measured against three principles:

Is the law necessary and reasonable?

Can it be enforced?

Does it contribute a real service to producers, handlers, and consumers?

The test should work out as well on proposed laws as candling does on eggs.

The Editor

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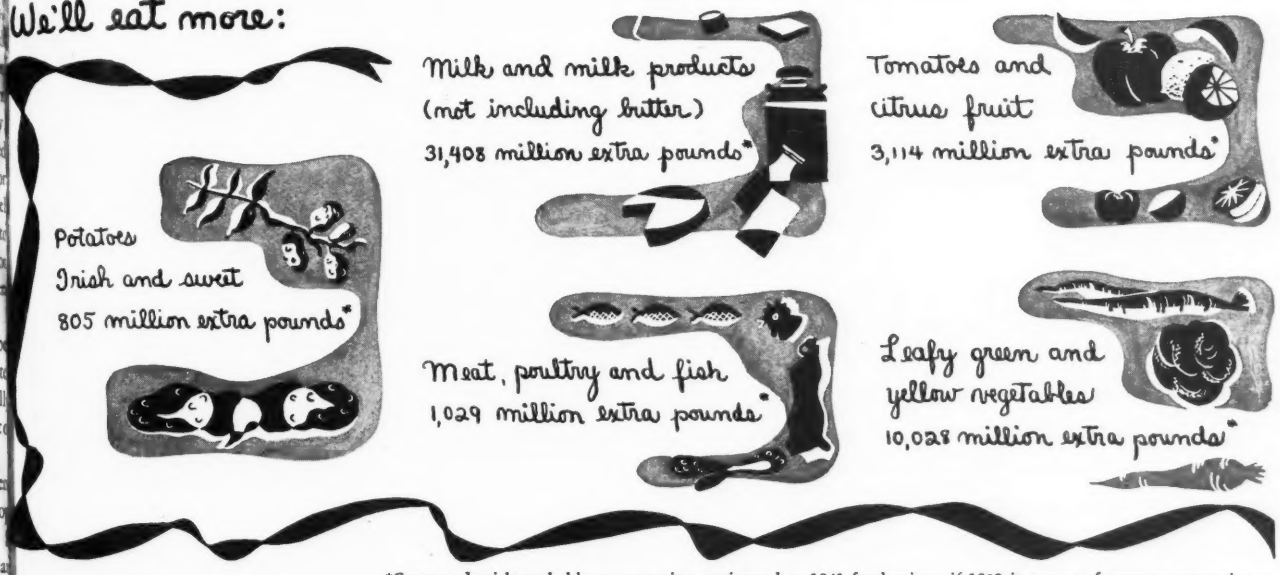
If everybody eats well in 1950


We'll eat more:
Milk and milk products (not including butter) 31,408 million extra pounds*
Tomatoes and citrus fruit 3,114 million extra pounds*
Potatoes Irish and sweet 805 million extra pounds*
Meat, poultry and fish 1,029 million extra pounds*
Leafy green and yellow vegetables 10,028 million extra pounds*

*Compared with probable consumption, estimated at 1941 food prices, if 1950 is a year of average prosperity.

As world consumption goes, we're a well-fed Nation, but . . .

Thousands of American families still haven't the means to buy all the food they need for health and efficiency. We know this from studies which show that families with incomes of less than $1,000 a year generally can't afford adequate diets.

Other thousands of American families who have enough money to eat well aren't getting good diets because of ignorance or indifference and bad food habits. If people follow along this same eating pattern, their food expenditures in 1950, under normally prosperous conditions, would add up to about 20.9 billion dollars (at 1941 prices). For everybody to be well-fed would take about 3.4 billion extra dollars in food purchases.

This is underlined in a recent review of food-buying patterns of various income groups, as set forth in a U. S. Department of Agriculture publication, *High-Level Food Consumption in the United States*. An analysis of food purchases by the various income groups in 1941 shows that:

Scant meals are the general rule for low-income families who live on farms as well as those who live in towns. As a group, families with incomes under $1,000 don't get nearly enough milk, eggs, tomatoes and citrus fruits, leafy green and yellow vegetables, or meat, poultry, and fish.

As family incomes go up, from under $500 to $5,000, food consumption increases not only in the total number of pounds eaten but in the use of protective foods, such as milk, tomatoes or citrus fruit, meat, poultry, and fish.

Families with incomes between $1,000 and $2,000 eat much better than those with lower incomes. This is particularly true of farm families, whose diets are quite "respectable" except for shortages of tomatoes and citrus fruits and of leafy green and yellow vegetables. (Farm homemakers and garden planners, take note.)

Town and city families with incomes between $1,000 and $2,000 also eat better than those with lower incomes. But, even at this income level, their diets remain critically short in leafy green and yellow vegetables and milk.

Somewhere between $1,000 and $2,000 incomes, restricted income ceases to be the principal "villain" in the malnutrition drama. After that, lack of *savvy* or plain *don't care* is increasingly to blame.

After the $2,000 income is reached, most families get sufficient quantities of food unless the family is large. Diet shortages among this group are almost entirely due to deficiencies in protective foods.

Question for farm homemakers: Does your family get enough tomatoes, citrus fruits, or raw vegetables to provide ample vitamin C? Diets of even well-to-do farm families tend to be short in these foods, though it would be simple to grow and can tomatoes for use throughout the year.

Question for nonfarm homemakers: Does your family get enough milk and leafy green and yellow vegetables? These items are likely to be short in the diets of town and city people, even when they can afford to buy all the food they need.

As a group, families with incomes over $5,000 buy food that adds up to more calories than are good for them—if they actually eat all they buy. Probably many of these excess calories are wasted in the kitchen or at the dinner table, however. But at the same time they're buying more than they need of some kinds of food; they are skimping on purchases of other foods they need. Thus, nonfarm families with incomes over $5,000 generally buy about one-fifth less milk than they need and about one-fourth less leafy green and yellow vegetables.

What we seek ultimately is a high level of food consumption that will provide good nutrition for everyone.

—President Truman, message on the state of the Union and the Budget, January 21, 1946.

Such was the nutritional state of the Nation as of 1941. Since then incomes have gone up. With the rise in incomes there has been a rise in food consumption.

During the war, per capita food consumption averaged 8 percent above the prewar years, 1935–39. Since the end of hostilities it has increased still further, to somewhere between 10 and 15 percent above the prewar average. But we don't eat averages. And many families still haven't the money to buy the food they need. Actually the problem of serving nourishing meals is harder today for low-income families because prices are up.

Exactly how many thousands of Americans eat inadequate diets, Government authorities hesitate to estimate. But findings by Government agencies and private research alike confirm the fact that inadequate diet continues to be a serious problem, calling for positive action.

We have the land and the know-how to produce enough food for everybody.

1950 food objective

Many cogent reasons why we should have a well-fed America as our 1950 food objective are outlined in *High-Level Food Consumption in the United States*.

Better diets would mean greater health and well-being for average Americans, of all income groups. Henry C. Sherman, noted nutrition authority, points out that typical American diets, at all income levels, need improving. He adds:

"Improvement even of dietaries already adequate and supporting a level of health already normal results in better growth and development, higher attainment in stamina and working efficiency, and a longer lease of healthier and more useful and satisfying life."

American farmers can produce enough to feed everybody well. They proved that during the war when food production was stepped up one-third. Plain truth is, farmers are all set to go on producing at such a high rate that they'll face marketing problems and falling prices if food consumption drops to prewar levels.

If everybody is eating well in 1950, the Nation will consume 48 billion pounds more food than if we eat according to our 1941 consumption pattern, under conditions of average prosperity. About two-thirds of this increase would be in the form of milk or milk products, not counting butter. Ten billion pounds would be leafy green and yellow vegetables.

At 1941 prices, these larger food purchases would gross American business 3.4 billion extra dollars in food sales above what could be expected under a normally prosperous condition in 1950. Farmers would stand to get 1.7 billion extra dollars directly from these larger food sales.

If we don't distribute the food, if consumption drops back to that of 1941, what then?

About 31 million American families—one-fifth of our population — would scarcely be able to escape serious undernourishment in 1950, under average business conditions—that is, neither boom nor depression—with prices at 1941 levels. Farmers would be plagued with serious marketing troubles and low prices.

Full employment alone won't accomplish the goal of good diets for everybody in 1950, though it would bring us much nearer to our objective. Even with jobs for everybody, there would undoubtedly be many families with incomes too small to afford high-level diets at regular market prices. Added to these are people with higher-incomes who don't eat right, because they don't know how or don't care.

For farmers to grow the right amounts of the right kinds of food to meet the national needs would take a bit of doing but they have the land and know-how to produce the necessary food.

Thanks to nutrition research by the U. S. Department of Agriculture and other agencies, our knowledge of national food needs is now extensive and is increasing.

New discoveries enable farmers to shift production to varieties of foods which give larger yields and are more nutritious.

Agricultural research provides the ba for an accurate food budget that could set up and improved from year to year the light of new findings in the field food production and food use.

Crux of the problem is how to get t food distributed. There's no easy ans to that one. But it's to the interest all that we figure out a way to achi the objective of a well-fed America.

Income has been shown to be a ma cause of poor diets. How to get over t hurdle?

Farmers and city people obviously h a common interest in measures that p mote full employment. Farmers also h a stake in measures to raise the purcha power of low-income groups. A re survey by the Department of Labor sho that lowest income families were spend 70 percent of their income on food in fall of 1944 as compared with 50 per in 1942. Not much chance of t families increasing their food purch substantially, unless some means is dev to increase their purchasing power.

How to increase the food purchas low-income families?

Direct distribution of foods is means of stimulating food consumpt This was used extensively during the pression 1930's. Food trades didn't this type of disposal, however, as reg trade channels were bypassed. Also, surplus foods were oftentimes not the fo that the relief clients needed most.

Another case in point is the Food St Plan, whereby low-income families w

issued blue stamps entitling them to food in addition to their regular food purchases. This program won the support of the grocery trade as well as the low-income families who received the additional food. Growing from a small beginning in Rochester, N. Y., in May 1939 to a peak operation covering 345 areas with a total of 3.9 million consumer participants, the program stopped expanding with the advent of the war and was terminated on March 1, 1943—but not before it demonstrated that large-scale programs to increase consumption of low-income people can work.

One food disposal idea which is receiving considerable attention at the present time is the Food Allotment Plan, which aims to supplement the normal food budget of low-income families to enable them to buy nutritionally adequate diets. The plan calls for safeguards to insure that the food subsidy will actually be spent for food and will be in addition to food purchases which the family would normally make.

This is only one of the many proposals that have been advanced for breaking the income bottleneck in our food distribution system. But it's indicative of a growing awareness that something needs to be done.

Another means of raising food consumption to high levels is to get the facts about good diets into peoples' minds so that they will want to eat better.

Without knowledge or proper food habits, a homemaker may not make wise food purchases. As the Government agency concerned with the production of food, the U. S. Department of Agriculture has long recognized its obligation to conduct research on food and nutrition and to make these findings known as a guide not only to farmers who produce the food but to all those who eat the food. Grown-ups have a way of wanting what they like and bucking sudden changes in their eating habits, even when reminded of the error of their ways. However, some progress has been made as a result of the continual plugging away by the various agencies concerned with improving nutrition.

Our wartime need to mobilize the full strength of our Nation gave added impetus to nutrition education. Undoubtedly a considerable part of the tremendous step-up in milk consumption during the war years was the result of a growing knowledge of nutrition by American families.

Children's food habits are easier to guide than those of adults who have already become set in their ways. For this reason more nutrition education in the early grades is urged as a means of achieving adequate food consumption for everybody.

This brings us to another line of attack on the problem of malnutrition. It's the *service approach*, as exemplified by the school lunch program, in-plant feeding programs, and the improvement in facilities for food handling.

The idea behind the *service approach* is this: People will eat better sooner if better eating is made easier.

Potentialities for improving the eating habits of our boys and girls and, incidentally, expanding our present markets for farm products are obvious if the School Lunch Program could be extended to reach all our school boys and girls.

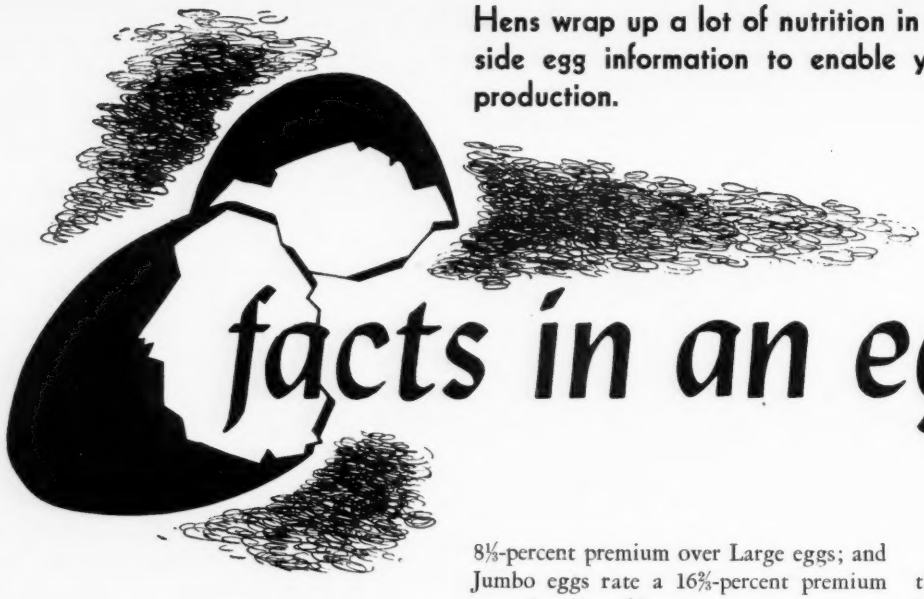
A similar twofold purpose is accomplished by the industrial feeding program. Begun as a war measure to promote the health and efficiency of war workers, the in-plant feeding program also recommends itself as a measure for improving food habits and thereby increasing the market for farm goods.

Last but not least in the *service approach* to the problem of increased food consumption is cutting of marketing costs.

Low-income families can buy more food if prices are lower. Efficient business is good business, so the middleman stands to profit, too, from measures that will cut down waste and needless expense in distribution and will increase sales.

Not only farmers but the whole Nation will profit from a well-fed America. The efforts of agriculture have been not only to produce food for sale but food which will make the Nation strong.

If everybody is well-fed in 1950, farmers will have double cause to give thanks. Thanks because they and their neighbors will be getting all the food they need. Thanks because larger food sales will mean larger incomes for farmers.



Hens wrap up a lot of nutrition in an eggshell. Here is some i side egg information to enable you to profit from flush spri production.

facts in an egg shel

● Egg myths don't crack as easily as eggshells. And, for that matter, eggshells may not crack so easily in the future either. Poultry experts are now trying to breed hens that will lay eggs with tougher shells.

But about the egg myths:

(1) White eggs are better than brown eggs, or brown eggs are better than white eggs.

(2) Egg yolk color indicates nutritive quality.

(3) Raw and soft-cooked eggs are more easily digested than hard-cooked eggs.

(4) Grade AA eggs are more nutritious than Grade B eggs.

(5) A dozen eggs is a dozen eggs.

False, all five myths! All belong in a nonsense omelet.

One dozen eggs may contain as much as 50 percent more egg than another dozen eggs. Under U. S. Consumer Grades for eggs, Jumbo-sized eggs must weigh at least 28 ounces a dozen. Small eggs need weigh only 18 ounces per dozen. Extra Large eggs must weigh at least 26 ounces per dozen. A dozen Large eggs must weigh at least 24 ounces, and Medium eggs must weigh at least 21 ounces. You actually get the equivalent of 4 more eggs in a dozen Large eggs than you get in a dozen Small eggs. On the basis of the amount of egg you get per dozen, Small eggs should sell for 25 percent less than Large eggs, on a comparative food value basis; Medium eggs should sell for 12½-percent less than Large eggs; Extra Large eggs are worth an 8⅓-percent premium over Large eggs; and Jumbo eggs rate a 16⅔-percent premium over the price of Large eggs.

Does the color of the yolk tell you anything about the nutrients in the egg? It does not. Egg nutrients depend on the season, and the hen's diet. Pale yolks in eggs laid by hens nurtured on cod liver oil may be twice as rich in vitamins A and D as are deep-yellow yolks from eggs laid by hens on hit-or-miss diets.

Are top-quality eggs more nutritio than eggs of lesser grades? They ta better, they look better, but nutritionis say nutritive value is the same, a fact keep in mind when you are balancing food budget.

Eggshell color, what does it tell yo The answer—*nothing*. Eggshell color d pends primarily on the breed of the bi and has no bearing on nutritive qualit Before the Civil War, New England far

EGGS ARE PLENTIFUL

Price ceilings on top-grade eggs were cut 2 cents a dozen on December 27, 1944. Two more cents were knocked off the ceiling on January 3, 1946, and successive reductions will clip about 20 cents altogether off of the ceiling price by the middle of this month (March).

OPA, by reducing its ceilings, concedes that mother nature is a pretty fair price fixer herself. Spring starts natural processes in hens humming and as a result eggs pour into the market.

Mother nature, plus farmers' wartime exertions, produced the second highest crop in history in 1945, more than 4 billion 300 million dozens of them. With meat short and eggs plentiful, consumers ate more eggs in 1945 than in any other year in history, more than an egg a day for a per capita consumption of 398 for the whole year. Besides what civilians ate, the armed forces took 500 million dozens of eggs, about 20 percent of the year's production. Almost 500 million dozens of eggs were shipped overseas during 1945.

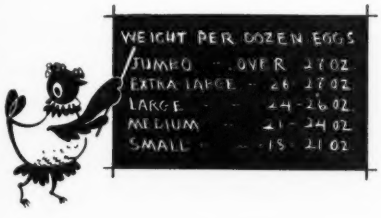
About as many hens as laid the near-record number of eggs in 1945 will be on the job in 1946 and will probably lay almost as many eggs. With smaller requirements for the armed forces this month and for the rest of the year eggs will be plentiful enough to permit everyone who has a yen for better tasting, more nutritious foods to toss an extra egg into the recipe, and to eat more of them with increasing quantities of bacon and ham.

Special laws protect manufacturers against losses arising from war production contracts. To insure egg producers against losses resulting from gearing their production up to wartime goals the U. S. Department of Agriculture is supporting farm egg prices at 29 cents a dozen (Midwest average, 27 cents per dozen). If egg prices sag the Department will step in and buy eggs to maintain these prices. First it will buy powdered eggs and then frozen eggs, if that is necessary to keep prices steady.

The 29-cent average price per dozen is 90 percent of the parity price for eggs, a price which is designed to give the same purchasing power to a dozen eggs today that it had back in 1910–14.

ers raised Rhode Island Red and Plymouth Rock flocks which laid brown eggs. New York farmers raised White Leghorns which laid white eggs. Then, a white egg in New England and a brown egg in New York usually indicated an imported, older egg. With modern egg-handling methods eggs can be shipped thousands of miles into a city and be of better quality than an egg laid a half mile up the road if the neighboring egg is not handled properly.

Are hard-cooked eggs less digestible than soft-cooked or raw eggs? Not necessarily. Doctors start infants off on a diet of cooked yolks. Hard-cooked, soft-cooked, or raw eggs are more or less equally digestible. What makes the difference in the digestibility of hard- or soft-cooked eggs is how you cook them. The secret is in even, slow heating.



There is nothing mythological about U. S. Consumer Grades for eggs. They appear on labels sealing egg cartons, throughout the country.

U. S. Consumer Grades and labels for eggs are designed to tell the people who buy eggs in stores the quality of the eggs, their size, and the date on which the eggs were inspected. To guide dealers in buying eggs and to enable the Government to buy eggs intelligently, there are other, more technical, egg grades.

Consumers spend about 5 cents out of every dollar they spend on food for eggs; farmers in 1945 got 5 percent of their total income from eggs, 1½ billion dollars.

The reason eggs are important is that they are a very good food, and an excellent cooking ingredient. They are not only welcome as eggs but they combine readily with almost any other food you want to dress up or enrich. They are a good source of the most valuable proteins (proteins vary in food value). They rate excellent as a source of iron and phosphorus. In a sense the egg is also an over-sized vitamin pill, for in the egg the hen has wrapped up vitamins A and D, and the B vitamins, thiamine, and riboflavin.

Home economists have starred the egg as a protective food and they say eating an egg or more a day is a good rule, especially when eggs are plentiful. They also have something to say about buying, preparing, and storing eggs.

You buy eggs by U. S. Consumer Grade if you can. You keep in mind the fact that you can cut food costs by watching egg sizes and buying the size which gives you the most egg for the money. You may also save money by selecting the lower grades for general cooking and baking purposes. Naturally you prefer the top grades when you are going to have your eggs poached, fried, or soft- or hard-cooked. Be sure to buy your eggs in a store where they are kept in a refrigerator.

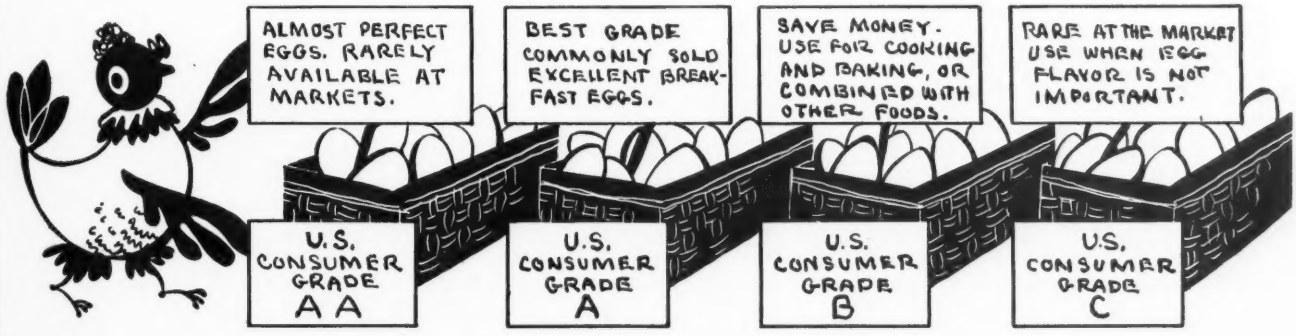
It takes an expert with a candle to tell much about eggs when they don't have a grade label on them. Dull eggshells indicate better quality than glossy smooth shells, the dullness is a bloom the hen put on the eggshell to help seal out impurities and contamination. Clean eggshells are important because dirt is a possible source of contamination. When you break open a good egg it will have no off odor, the yolk will be upstanding, and the white will be thick and firm.

Eggs are perishable. After you get them home put them in a covered bowl in your refrigerator away from foods with penetrating odors or flavors. You never wash the eggs, but if they are dirty wipe them clean with a damp cloth. Avoid freezing or temperatures below 30° F. If you have cracked an egg accidentally be sure to use it first. Then if you have an egg yolk left over from something you whipped up, cover it with cold water and store in a cool place. Left-over egg whites should be stored in a jar with a tight top.

Just about every one of America's 6 million farms produce eggs enough for the family with a small surplus for sale. Since a 2-ounce egg represents about 6 ounces of transformed feed, egg production is higher where feed is more plentiful, that is, in the corn-producing North Central States, with Iowa leading the country in egg production.

Egg factories, specialized egg farms where the hens produce eggs on an assembly line basis, are a relatively recent development. They are located for the most part along the Atlantic and Pacific coasts near the great buying and eating areas.

Hens all over the place scatter the marketing of eggs all over the place. Every town and city gets some or all of its eggs from its immediate vicinity. Most large cities in addition must draw on distant egg-producing areas to make up the balance of its egg ration. Consequently, egg


ALMOST PERFECT EGGS. RARELY AVAILABLE AT MARKETS.
BEST GRADE COMMONLY SOLD EXCELLENT BREAKFAST EGGS.
SAVE MONEY. USE FOR COOKING AND BAKING, OR COMBINED WITH OTHER FOODS.
RARE AT THE MARKET USE WHEN EGG FLAVOR IS NOT IMPORTANT.
U.S. CONSUMER GRADE AA
U.S. CONSUMER GRADE A
U.S. CONSUMER GRADE B
U.S. CONSUMER GRADE C

marketing doesn't lend itself to a neat chart with lines going directly from here to there.

Farmers may sell their eggs directly to consumers. They may take them to country stores and trade them for goods. They may trade them to peddlers for their wares. Some farmers sell directly to retail stores or hotels and restaurants. Many sell their eggs to country shippers.

Then the eternal egg has produced two relatively new marketing devices: the producers' cooperative and the egg auction. Through cooperatives farmers eliminate most middlemen and distribute eggs through channels they organize themselves, which include concentration and packing points, cold-storage plants, and city distribution agencies. Most egg producer cooperatives concentrate on producing and distributing top-quality eggs.

The second device is the egg auction. Farmers deliver their eggs once or twice a week to a central location where the eggs are sorted and graded and put up for sale at auction to dealers.

Once eggs get into marketing channels the logical, or illogical, compulsions of large-scale marketing take over.

Eggs gather at concentration points where they are graded and packed. The next step takes them either to cold-storage plants, to freezing plants, to drying factories, or into channels that lead to more dealers, and eventually to the retail stores and markets where consumers pick them up.

Eggs can wander around a long time before they get to consumers. Since eggs are perishable, unless they are handled carefully and efficiently, they can spoil and since they are fragile they can break. About 1 out of every 20 eggs that leave the farm is lost along the way.

The handling also costs money. From 1935 through 1939 farmers got an average of 77 cents out of every dollar spent by consumers for eggs. In September 1945, they received 71 cents out of every dollar spent at retail stores for eggs.

Eggs are seasonal products. Hens perk up in the spring and slow down through the summer to practical retirement in the winter. April and May are the months when eggs cascade into nests, so that 60 percent of the eggs produced come in 4 spring and summer months. Eating eggs is relatively unseasonal, so that in some months more eggs are being laid than are eaten. At other periods more eggs are eaten than are laid. Cold-storage plants even up supply and demand for you. The eggs left over in the spring go into storage and come out in the winter.

When you cook eggs

The handiest little compendium of egg cooking hints and recipes available is "Egg Dishes for Any Meal" (AWI–89), prepared by the Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics and free for the asking from the Office of Information, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington 25, D. C. Many of the recipes provide for two amounts of eggs, the lesser quantity gives you a tasty egg dish, economically. The larger egg ration provides for more food value and sometimes for richer, smoother egg presentations.

Eggs should always be cooked at a low to moderate temperature. Fast, high-temperature cooking gives you tough leathery eggs. Cooling eggs cooked in the shell quickly in cold water after they have been slow-cooked sometimes keeps the yolks from turning green and at the same time tends to prevent the shell membrane from sticking to the egg white.

To poach eggs, slip them into boiling salted water from a saucer, then turn the fire down to a simmer. Use a shallow pan and just enough water to cover the eggs.

Try cooking scrambled eggs in a double boiler. Some people prefer eggs this way.

Egg white clears cloudy soup to a near transparency.

Before you beat egg whites let them stand until they come to room temperature. Add a pinch of salt for more foam. When combining the egg whites with other ingredients fold the whites in, using an under-and-over motion. Don't overmix or some of your egg white foam will go down.

When you make custards, to avoid curdling, you add the sugar to the eggs and not to the hot milk . . . add hot ingredients to the egg a little at a time and don't overcook. In making mayonnaise combine the seasoning with the egg yolk before you put the oil in, then add the oil in small amounts at a time.

Like everything else about eggs, the technique of storing them has improved over the years. Ways have been found to keep eggs through the use of mineral oil baths and carbon dioxide so that deterioration is almost imperceptible. Investigations have shown how to keep eggs free from strange odors and flavors. Cold-storage eggs, generally speaking, are not yet as reliable as fresh eggs, but they are cheaper than fresh eggs, just as nutritious, and for most cooking purposes about as good.

GI's remember not too happily the dried eggs that were heaped into their mess gear overseas. If there had been a chance for better storage and time in the middle of a war to give each mess sergeant a short course in dried egg cookery the story might have been different. Actually dried eggs, dried whites, dried yolks, and dried whole eggs may win a place beside the other staples a woman keeps around the kitchen. They keep almost indefinitely; they can be used in recipes wherever eggs are called for. They are economical, convenient, compact, easy to measure out, and they don't crack when you fumble. Cooking With Dried Eggs (AIS–28) is the title of an introduction to their use which has been prepared by the Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics. It is free from the Office of Information, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington 25, D. C.

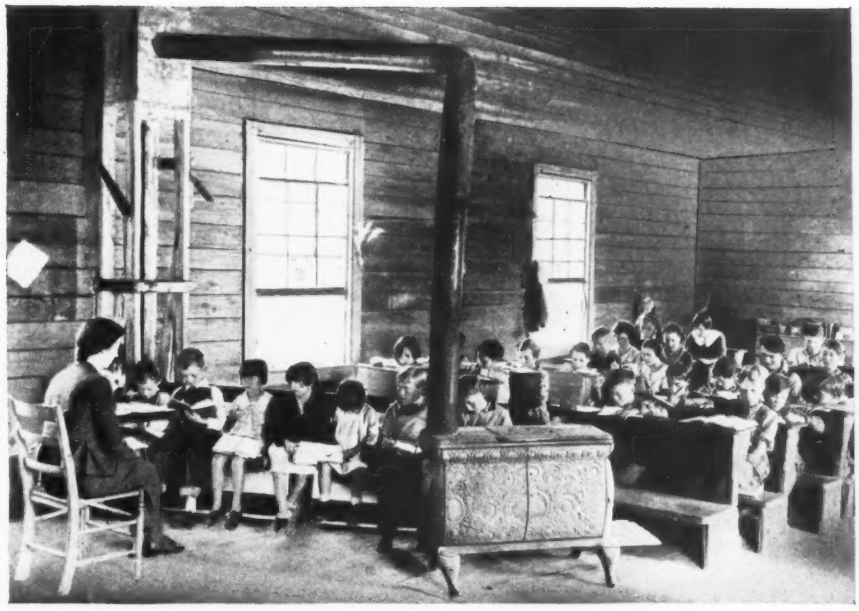
Because the hen is not economical with shipping space when she packs nutrition into an eggshell the war turned the attention of the Government to dried and liquid eggs. Dried eggs were shipped overseas in one-fifth of the shipping space that otherwise would have been necessary. From 1937 the production of dried eggs increased about 600 times to a figure that represented one-fifth of the eggs produced in the country in 1944.

In the average prewar year, most eggs consumed were shell eggs, but a substantial number of eggs did reach consumers wrapped up in other foods. A few eggs were used industrially. Of every 100 eggs produced before the war, about 80 were served at family tables; about one-third of an egg was prepared in noodles; about went into bakery products; about 1 went into mayonnaise and salad dressing; about 1 went into ice cream and candy; about one-fifth of an egg went into prepared flour puddings, and so on; about 4 were used for hatching chickens to make more eggs; about 5 were lost through spoilage and breakage.

A very small quantity went into medicines, into leather tanning and fur dressing, into the manufacture of photographic supplies, and into laboratories where they were used as media in which to grow bacterial cultures.

First call for lunch

Better health, better scholarship, and happier children are in the offing for communities that are starting early to plan a school lunch program.



It takes more than books, desks, children, and teacher to make the best school. Whether it be a one-room building or a city school system, better learning follows better food.

● From the tops of old cook stoves set up in the cloakrooms of lonely one-room schools on the wind-whipped prairies and from glistening chromium tables in palatial metropolitan high schools, the ides of March find approximately 8 million school children receiving the benefits of a noonday lunch. They are receiving this nutritious food at a reasonable price through the cooperation of local school officials and the U. S. Department of Agriculture in the Community School Lunch Program.

March is the peak month for participation in this locally sponsored and administered project which receives Federal assistance in the form of both money and guidance. March is also the month for planning improvements in existing school lunch operations and for considering the establishment of a school lunch program in schools that have not yet taken advantage of this community and Nation building service for their young.

So this month is the time to look over just what results the program has yielded through the years for those who have taken part in it. Has it been worth Government money, the communities' efforts, and the cooperative contributions of the myriad organizations and individuals that have worked together in this flexible plan?

Strangely enough school lunches were born of the depression. Throughout the serene and relatively secure days of the first part of the century, during WorldWar I and the flashy, spotty, prosperity of the 1920's no one seemed to care, at least on a national basis, where the school kids ate or what. Then came the dismal days of the early 1930's, men and women with idle hands and empty pockets, farmers with bumper crops and bulging bins and empty pockets. To give men work and the farmer a market, school lunches first came into being here on a substantial scale.

The Works Progress Administration and the National Youth Administration supplied needy workers to build and serve and administer school lunch projects. The Department of Agriculture with food on its hands which it had purchased under its program to support the farmers' prices of agricultural commodities donated a portion of this food to feed the youngsters at noon. And school lunches did help materially to serve the first aims which brought it to life. By 1941 WPA had nearly 65,000 workers on school lunch projects in 25,000 schools, NYA furnished an additional 16,000, and the Department of Agriculture was donating foodstuffs to 66,000 schools at the rate of 56 million pounds a month. But school lunches did more than accomplish an emergency economic need, they killed two birds with one stone. When the war came, with it came recognition that school lunches had done even more than accomplish an emergency economical need. It was learned that they were serving to mitigate the force of the inroads of hunger on our national health.

Dramatically the Army found and announced that a large number of the men rejected for Army service were thrown out because of disabilities traceable to nutrition deficiencies in childhood and youth. The importance of not only feeding our children well but of training them in proper eating habits was spotlighted.

Congress, convinced of the need of the continuance of the school lunch program appropriated 50 million dollars for the fiscal year of 1944. During the first year of the Federal reimbursement program, as it now stands, almost 4 million children in 30,000 schools were receiving a well-balanced lunch based on Federal nutrition requirements. Since that time the program has grown so that this year it is estimated that at least 8,000,000 children will benefit from school lunches. Recognized in its own right, the program became so popular that this year Congress added a 7-million-dollar deficiency appropriation to meet the necessary demands.

Other countries were ahead of ours in recognizing the relationship between the school child's noonday meal and national health. The Boer War opened England's eyes to the inroad that malnutrition in youth could make upon the nation's safety. In 1902 a major general of the British Army tossed a bombshell into the counsels of war and state when he disclosed that only two out of every five men who wanted to enlist in the armed forces were physically fit for duty.

An alarmed public rose up and asked why. Two special committees of technical experts were appointed by Parliament to dig up the answer. They went to work investigating the general social and economic causes of this deterioration of health in so many classes of people. And they came up not only with the cause but a way to stop it. Both committees produced the same conclusions. They found no hereditary taint causing this progressive deterioration. They learned that environmental factors counterbalanced strength at birth and of all the elements of environment that were contributing to the decay of the people they concluded that malnutrition among school children led the list.

Their remedy? It was a practical one. Find a working scheme to be sure that the school child was fed. It was a revolutionary recommendation but the threat to the National safety was great. They came up with a recommendation that school lunches be supported wherever possible by private funds, public funds to be used only when costs could not otherwise be met.

It wasn't until 1906 that Parliament set the pattern which in a rough form was followed in many countries including our own. They passed the Provision of Meals Act. This law transferred school feeding from charities to local educational officials by authorizing them to install restaurants for serving warm meals as part of their school equipment. These meals to be served free to those unable to pay and charged for when the child could pay. It was not a mandatory law. Local committees on which the school board was represented could decide on whether or not to sponsor the program. The cost of the food was met as far as possible by parents and voluntary contributions and if these sources failed, by a local tax.

In 1907 the legislation was made stronger. Medical inspection was made compulsory in all schools. In many schools medical officers chose the children to be fed and approved the composition of meals.

The results on the health of the children were beginning to show and detriment to the health when they weren't fed became equally felt. So in 1914 schools were authorized to serve meals throughout the vacation period because studies showed that the benefits of feeding during the school year were often lost during vacation when the meals were discontinued.

Latin American experience with the school lunch program is also significant. Although school feeding was not undertaken on a national scale in any of the countries of South or Central America until late in the 1920's rapid development of lunch programs in the last few years indicates that public authorities have begun to take action on a broad scale to meet the serious problem of child malnutrition in those countries.

Free breakfast, lunch, and milk projects, supported either wholly or in part by governmental funds, are now maintained in scattered communities of Brazil, Peru, Venezuela, Ecuador, Paraguay, Colombia, Chile, Uruguay, Cuba, Costa Rica, Mexico, Nicaragua, and Argentina.

Awakening to the value of school lunches came to this country during the first part of the century although from a governmental standpoint we remained relatively slow in doing anything about the problem of malnutrition in children. Each time during the decade of World War I that important disclosures were made on the effects of hunger or improper diets of children, action was taken by concerned scattered communities and cities. Many towns started to operate penny lunch programs in elementary schools, often taking over the job formerly done by voluntary societies. By 1918 a survey

In Puerto Rico (left) Sister Mary who established the first school there many years ago carries on. An older student (center) works a Brazilian school lunch garden and in Newfoundland (right) a British version of child feeding is under way.

How to get a community school lunch

Schools wishing to participate, submit an application to the Department of Agriculture showing the type and extent of the program they wish to operate and indicate the amount of assistance they need. If the application is accepted the local sponsors enter into an agreement with the Department of Agriculture that they will serve a specified type of lunch to all children in the school regardless of their ability to pay and that any profits will be reinvested in the program. The sponsors also agree to conform to all applicable health laws and that they will purchase in as large quantities as may be efficiently used, such food as the Department announces as abundant.

Usually the school board acts as sponsor. However, where the board is unable to assume this responsibility any local civic nonprofit organization may enter into an agreement with the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

For further information write to Consumers' Guide, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington 25, D. C.

of 86 cities of more than 50,000 population showed that some provisions were made for lunches in high schools but that only 25 percent of these cities helped feed the elementary school children. The establishment of these programs in high schools was stimulated by the short lunch hour rather than any basic nutritional aid. Elementary kids were supposed to go home for their noon meal. Of the 72 cities reporting high school service only 5 indicated that the lunch had been established to combat malnutrition.

During this time many Department of Agriculture Extension workers in home economics advocated and cooperated in setting up rural school lunches. There wasn't much they could do, but preach the necessity of it. A common arrangement was for the children to bring their own meal and have the teacher heat it for them.

The excellent results from the school lunch programs to date have been obvious as established by the accurate rule of science.

In New York City two groups of children were chosen in a poor and crowded part of the city. One group received a school lunch, the nutritional content of which was known. The other group was made up of those who depended on their homes for the noonday meal. A total of 1,600 children from 4 schools in the neighborhood was selected. Approximately one-third of the children were receiving free lunches. Some children having been recently placed on them and others having received them over a period of from 1 to 3 years.

The records showed that more than three-fourths of the age groups receiving the school lunch made larger increases in growth in both stature and weight than did those who depended on their homes for lunch. The over-all average increases of boys in the school lunch group reached significant levels, and this was true for the girls, also, while their total increases in stature was considered equal to that of nonlunch girls. The school lunch was undoubtedly a factor in improving growth among this group of children.

Another study revealed that of the children who had a good lunch at school over a 2-year period, 38 percent showed an improvement in growth record in comparison with only 16 percent among those children who received only supplementary food along with the lunch they brought from home. Of the first group only 11 percent showed evidence of retarded growth, while 29 percent of the second group indicated that their growth was not up to average.

Another study made in South Carolina disclosed that a high proportion of the children receiving complete lunches made unusually good gains in height while the children in the surrounding community not taking part in a lunch group remained short for their ages. At the end of a year and a third during which time the experiment was conducted the pediatrician reported that a greater proportion of those who had the complete lunch had outward signs of good nutrition than did the others. And last but not least, a somewhat larger proportion of the children receiving complete lunch improved the trend of their physical growth and a smaller proportion lost ground during periods of study.

That there are millions of children throughout our country who need the addition to their diet that a school lunch can give them is being disclosed by continuing studies from coast to coast.

Guatemalan kindergarten children receive the same healthful benefits from better food that ours do at home. Stimulated school lunch programs follow many flags.

Containers at the crossroads

War streamlined the container field. Can civilians keep any of these gains, or must we return to can confusion?

A few of the 258 cans which baffled shopping housewives in prewar grocery stores.

• For years people have talked about cutting down on the number of can sizes. Weights and measure officials, the National Bureau of Standards, the canning industry, and consumers all have given countless hours to the subject. They've had meetings and appointed committees and made recommendations and passed resolutions. They always agreed that there were too many can sizes, but some way when the next season's pack appeared there'd be just as many, sometimes more, sizes than before. Everyone had a special reason for holding on to the particular sizes in his line. This situation continued until, in 1941, there were cans in 258 sizes on grocers' shelves.

Consumers had complained a little, from time to time, about this jungle of containers. Even with net contents printed on the labels, the differences in some cans, they said, were so slight they couldn't tell which was more economical, ounce for ounce. A fraction more added to the diameter, an infinitesimal increase in the height, a penny more or 2 cents less on the price—who can spend her time going around measuring tin cans and doing arithmetic in fractions in the grocery store? These hidden differences were adding to the cost of food in annoying small ways they couldn't take time to check on, but which could count up to noticeable amounts in a family food budget. And right across the border in Canada, many American consumers knew, fruits and vegetables are canned in only 11 different sizes of cans, all easily distinguishable from each other at a glance.

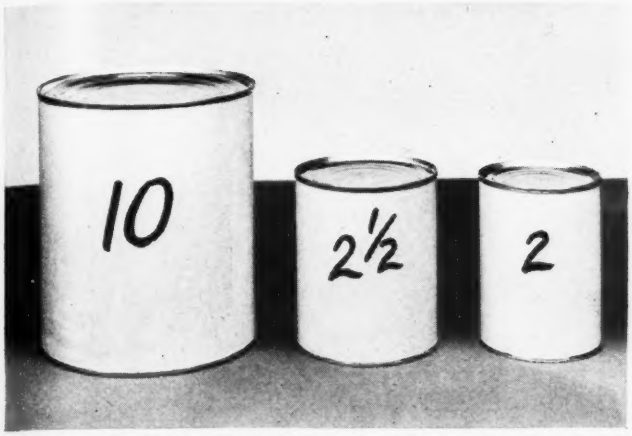
In 1939 consumers got as far as a Congressional Committee where they told the story of can confusion. They pointed out how impossible it was to compare values and shop economically when a single product in one store, for example, came in 21 containers, 11 brands, 17 sizes, and sold at fifteen different prices per ounce. The Committee was interested. So were the audience and the press. But . . . nothing happened.

Two years later came Pearl Harbor. Tin, always an essential product, immediately became strategic and critically short. With supplies from Malaya cut off we had nothing but existing stock piles to go on. And tin was needed for many things besides food containers.

Early in 1942 the Government in cooperation with representatives of the canning industry announced the terms of an order limiting the number of cans to be manufactured and used. They decided on this order for many reasons. First of all to save tin and steel. It had long been an accepted fact that the scores of can sizes which industry persisted in using were highly wasteful of materials.

Everything in the whole process of production and distribution would be expedited by the use of fewer sizes: Fewer cases would be needed, fewer labels would need to be printed, storage and shipping would be easier, inventories simplified. In addition to all this, price control and rationing would be immeasurably more difficult, if not impossible, unless can sizes were made approximately uniform. So this order, M–81, became law. In general the only cans allowed for fruits and vegetables are No. 2, No. 2½, No. 10. The greater part of all Government orders, which comprised 50 to 60 percent of the total pack, was processed in these sizes. Exceptions to this rule are baby foods in a No. 211 can, soup in the familiar No. 300, and a few other specialties. A few manufacturers were allowed to continue canning in an odd-sized can when it was impossible to change their lines to the nearest size under the order.

Thus, at one stroke cans were standardized. Consumers at first scarcely realized that this was happening. Engrossed in the puzzle of red and blue points they had small impulse to speculate on wartime sizes of canned foods. But as time went on they noticed several things. They missed the small convenient 1- and 2-serving cans, but when they grew accustomed to that it was rather nice not to have to bother about small differences in sizes and worry about which were best buys. Rationing forced many civilians to get acquainted with hitherto unknown brands, and that was often a pleasant surprise, too.



The majority of canned fruits and vegetables processed during the war, under Limitation Order 81, were put up in three sizes of cans. No. 2 is mostly used for vegetables, No. 2½ for fruits. No. 10 is standard size for large-scale users.

Here you see a consumer riddle. These cans look alike when not side by side yet one holds 3.67 ounces more than the other. Sometimes the price is the same for both, and sometimes the smaller costs more than the larger. On the left is No. 303, right, No. 2.

Shoppers have had a 4-year sample of standardized can sizes. Time will tell whether they learned anything from it. Perhaps the canning industry has learned something, too. The industry's magazine, "The Canning Trade," was not too hopeful on April 12, 1943, when it said:

"Reduction in can sizes allowable is a fine thing in itself, we'll hope that when the war is over we will not see an immediate return to the multiplicity of can sizes with which we were plagued before Pearl Harbor, but human nature being what it is, without continued Government supervision for a long time we will probably sink quickly back in the old rut of three cheers for ourselves and the Devil take the hindmost! If a canner will adopt a sensible course today, however, his conscience may be clear forever and a day."

Sometime ago another canning trade publication prophesied that we Americans will be opening and discarding over 45 million cans everyday when times become "normal," and that more different products than ever before will be canned. Housewives have a stake in what the sizes of those 45 million cans will be.

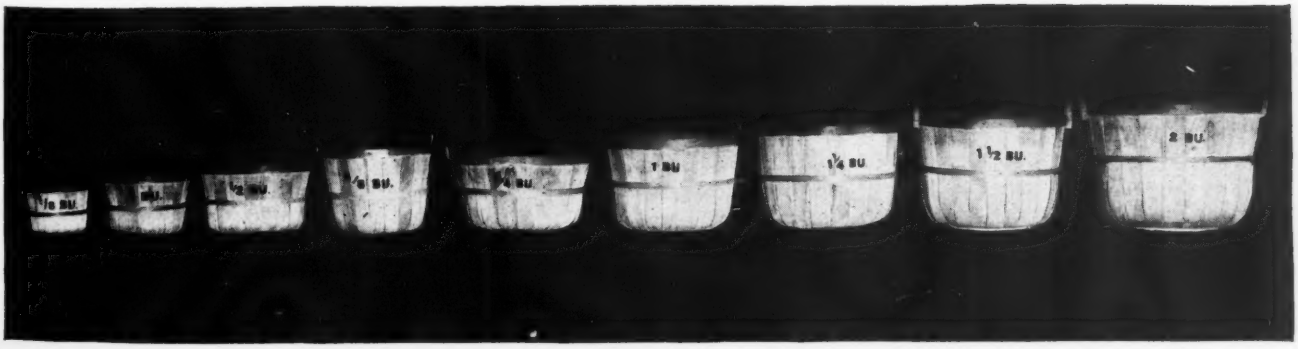
Glass

Because tin supplies were so short and containers for both commercial and home processed foods were needed as never before, glass enjoyed a war boom in this field. It seemed almost providential that there was no shortage of glass—at least not of the materials for producing glass. There was, however, a shortage of time and machines, in an industry already working three shifts. Early in 1942, Limitation Order 103 was passed with the express purpose of simplifying production. Twenty-eight designs of jars and bottles were recommended, and manufacturers were forbidden to make any new molds or designs other than these.

Manufacturers of glass containers would welcome standard sizes, but they have to make what their customers ask for, and to meet competition they must make as many sizes as other manufacturers make.

A prominent general sales manager said:

Nine sizes of round stave baskets permitted under Standard Container Act were cut to two in wartime. Capacity of baskets must be uniform, but State laws defining weights of products vary confusingly. A bushel of pears must weigh 58 pounds in Illinois, 36 in South Carolina.



"The glass container industry can't expand its plants to any great extent next year (1946). The thing to do, therefore, is to produce the maximum number of containers from existing facilities. This can best be done by continuing the use of standardized containers . . ."

To save materials and labor the eight sizes of hampers (top) permitted under the Standard Container Act were cut to three by Limitation Order 232. Two of the three hampers have only 1/8-bushel difference in capacity, but the 5/8-bushel size is not used for marketing but chiefly as a container for transporting tomatoes to the cannery.

Other containers

Cans and jars were not the only containers which had their numbers and variety cut in the interest of the war effort. There were more than 400 kinds and sizes of wooden crates and boxes in use. This number was cut to 70. Paper bags were cut from 284 sizes to 117.

Baskets and other fresh fruit and vegetable containers were limited, too. But they had long since been operating under Standard Container Acts which specified the number and capacity permissible for each variety. The wartime change therefore was not as dramatic as it was in the case of cans, where the reduction was from 258 to 3 (plus certain exceptions).

Congress, as you probably know, has the power under the Constitution to standardize containers. Federal laws affecting fruit and vegetable containers have been on the books for some years. The Standard Barrel Act (1915) defines the sizes of barrels for fruits and vegetables.

Two Standard Container Acts (1916 and 1928) fix the sizes of certain kinds of baskets, hampers, and market baskets used in the handling of fresh fruits and vegetables and contain provisions guarding against deceptive appearance.

The U. S. Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act regulates the fill of containers shipped in interstate commerce, and requires that "the container itself be so made, formed, or filled as not to be misleading."

By the Standard Container Acts, the number of berry boxes was reduced from 44 to 3; splint or market baskets from 40 to 6; hampers from 75 to 9.

Control of container sizes starts at the factory, not at the market. Manufacturers must submit specifications for proposed containers to the Production and Marketing Administration of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. Experts pass on the legality of specifications, and inspect factories to see that standard packages are being made. Containers must come in easily understood sizes without any trick, odd fractions of pints or quarts to confuse the buyer.

Every type of container has its own rules. Berry baskets and climax baskets are the only containers covered by the Standard Container Acts which come in consumer sizes. The berry baskets are for small fruits and certain small vegetables as well as for berries. These smaller containers are not intended for larger fruits and vegetables but there is no law preventing their use in such manner. Federal statutes declare the sizes shall come in dry measure units—half pint, pint, quart. No in-between-sizes—units of less than a quart—are permitted.

Climax baskets for grapes and other fruits and vegetables can be made only in 2-, 4-, and 12-quart sizes, plus a special 1-pound size for mushrooms.

War orders did not limit the manufacture of these small-type containers, but labor and materials did. Limitation Order 232 cut the number of round stave baskets permissible from 9 to 2, and the number of hampers from 8 to 3.

It would be impossible to estimate the savings in material and labor made by these wartime simplifications. And while no one expects the peacetime world to operate in the strait-jacket of war, there are many who would be happy to see some of the wartime practices retained. Packers, can manufacturers, farmers, and jobbers have much to gain from uniform standards. And, last on the list, the consumer would find shopping for food in the postwar world much less difficult.

CG news letter

last minute reports from U. S. Government Agencies

The world food crisis that has developed may prove to be the worst in modern times, said the President of the United States, in announcing a 9-point program designed to help avert starvation abroad by conserving food.

More people in the world will be hungry and starving this year than at any time during the war. While the people in the U. S. are eating more than ever before, 125 million Europeans are getting less than two-thirds as much in calories, 28 million people less than one-half as much, and large groups less than one-third as much as we. The bread ration in France and Italy, for example, is only about one-half a loaf a day—and two-thirds of the people's diet is bread. Our whole occupation program may be imperiled if Germany is cut below the subsistence level.

Reasons for the crisis may be summed up as follows: World food production per person is below normal; drought and the effects of war have reduced the wheat crops of Europe and North Africa; food and grain stocks have been used up faster throughout the world than was anticipated; and transportation is a serious problem.

The 9-point program announced by the President is:

1. Campaign to conserve food, especially bread—by consumers, retailers, and bakers.

2. Stopping use of wheat and limiting use of other grains for alcohol and beer. Saving: 20 million bushels of grain by June 30.

3. Extracting more flour from wheat and limiting distribution of flour. Saving: 25 million bushels of wheat by June 30.

4. Control over inventories of wheat and flour.

5. Rail priorities for wheat, corn, meat, and other essential foods.

6. Control over exports of wheat and flour.

7. Increase in exports of meat, fats and oils, and dairy products—especially cheese and evaporated milk.

8. Additional shipping for food to Europe and for movement of Philippine copra (to produce coconut oil).

9. Conservation of grain used for feeding livestock.

Above-normal purchases of flour for household use are unnecessary and unwise says the USDA. The Department asks homemakers not to hoard flour. Experienced homemakers have learned that flour cannot be kept for long in a warm kitchen or apartment. Commercial bakers who attempt to keep up to a 45 days' supply on hand, store the flour in rooms that are especially built for that purpose. Flour will not keep successfully in the home refrigerator because the flour takes up moisture. Flour must be kept dry as well as cool.

The direct tie-up between pocketbook and appetite was discussed by the Secretary of Agriculture in a recent speech before the National Canners Association. The Secretary pointed out: (1) People buy more food when they can afford it; (2) the kind of food they buy depends on the amount of money they earn; and (3) the greatest increase in consumption comes when low-level income families move up to higher income brackets.

"When consumers have plenty of money to spend, they want the best," the Secretary said. "And they will be more insistent on good quality as supplies become more readily available in the stores. In spite of the shortages during the war, we found that there was a definite limit on the amount of low-quality products that could be sold.

"We have learned the power of an appetite, when it is backed by buying power. We never knew, until the war taught us, how much food the people in this country could consume when they had plenty of jobs and good wages. Our full employment at good wages these past years opened demands for food that were the equivalent, almost, of adding 10 or 12 new States full of consumers."

Food shortages during the war sometimes made meal planning difficult, but the nutritive value of the average civilian diet was higher in 1945 than before the war or in the early years of the war, say food economists of the USDA. The improvement was due partly to the fact that people had more money to spend, and partly to the fact that the Nation is becoming more nutrition-conscious.

Serious danger of inflation is ahead if we don't succeed in holding prices down. Don't get careless about the prices you pay, warns the Office of Price Administration.

Meat supplies are large, but buying power is larger. During the spring months when meat supplies decline, this big demand backed up by money to buy could push meat prices out of reach of many families. You can help yourself and your neighbors to get a fair share of the available supply by paying no more than ceiling prices.

Without price control consumers would bid against each other for available supplies. Prices would soar. And that means INFLATION.

Do your part to help prevent such a calamity. Refuse to pay more than ceiling prices.

Consumers are asked by the OPA to remember these important points:

1. 1946 retail prices for durable goods will be at or near 1942 price levels.

2. Most durables will be tagged at the factory with OPA retail ceiling prices.

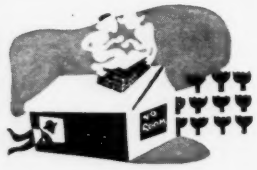
3. Refrigerators, vacuum cleaners, washing machines, and other durable goods you want are on the way. Don't rob your savings. Don't encourage inflation. Don't rob your neighbor. Never pay more than the ceiling price just to get something a little sooner.

4. Report all cases of overcharges to your OPA Price Control Board.

Yarn for wool rugs and cane for chair seating are still in short supply—which fact is not good news for home handicraftswomen. The stock pile of raw wool is ample, says Miss Reba Adams, extension specialist in home industries, USDA, but the combination of the tremendous demand and a shortage of labor add up to a tight situation this year. The textile mills are giving finely woven yarns priority.

Cane for seating in antique chairs comes mostly from the Celebes Islands in the South Pacific. Some of it comes from Africa. The little cane that is now imported goes to institutions for the blind and to veterans' hospitals for therapeutic work. Cane probably will not be on the market in good supply before next fall.

GUIDE POSTS



Housing shortage

April 1 is moving day in some communities but many families won't move this year. The reason—the housing shortage. But according to a Dutch housing official, we in the United States haven't seen anything! If we want to see how things really are, he says, we should go to Middleburg (Walcheren Island) where six families are living together in one house.

"There are in the Netherlands a half million persons who are literally homeless. They haven't a house, an apartment, even a barn. The lucky ones in the devastated areas have a roomy chicken coop or better, three shaky walls, and a reasonable approximation of a ceiling, or a friend somewhere who will let them share undamaged quarters."

So those who have taken the brunt of the war have added to their woes a housing shortage which by comparison makes ours look puny. "That," as the Dutchman says, "IS a housing shortage, my friends!"

Wrong way

Some ingenious homemakers have been trying to solve the fat shortage by substituting mineral oil when they can't find cooking oils and shortening at the grocery store, blissfully unaware that such a practice is condemned by medical authorities, says "Georgia's Health."

As the result of a special study, the Council on Foods and Nutrition of the American Medical Association issued a warning against the use of mineral oil which concluded:

"The effects of its prolonged use have not been thoroughly investigated, but there is sufficient evidence of possible harmful effects to justify the conclusion that its indiscriminate use in foods or in cooking is not in the interests of good nutrition, and any such use should be under careful supervision of a physician."

Graceful posture

"It's the way a girl carries herself that counts most," said the late master showman, Florenz Ziegfeld. So if you want to look nifty in your new spring suit, give a little thought to the matter of carrying yourself well.

To begin at the bottom, say the experts, look at your feet. Do your toes point straight ahead? You should walk in a straight line and the weight of your body should fall through the ankle. Your knees should be slightly relaxed. If the bulge in front is due to bad posture learn to carry the body properly and this will gradually tone up the abdominal muscles. If the bulge is from eating too much—you know what to do.

Your chest should be centered over your hips, shoulders will be right if the rest of the body is in a reasonably plumb line. In the poised body the head is centered over the chest, the chest over the hips, and the weight falls through the ankle joints.

Moth in the grub

Spring is in the air and many homemakers are thinking of that annual chore—spring cleaning. The New Zealand Consumer News offers a few suggestions for nipping the moth in the grub.

1. Empty all drawers and closets. Clean thoroughly.

2. Hang clothes in fresh air and bright sunshine and beat them well, looking along seams and under collars for signs of moth.

3. "Dirt and grease, moths increase." Dry cleaning and laundering kill them. So be sure everything is clean before you store it.

4. Don't stop at one moth hunt. Examine and air clothes at least once a month. Regular care saves worry.

New sizing system

The chances of getting clothes to fit Mary and Johnny without taking them downtown on shopping expeditions are improving. A few companies are launching new sizing systems using results of measurement studies made by the Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics. Under these systems garments are sized and labeled according to the weight and height of the child rather than by that misleading size—age. Armed with these measurements for her child, a mother should find ordering by mail or telephone, as well as personal shopping, a surer process.

Soya spaghetti

Adding "one meat ball" is a way to build up the protein value of a spaghetti dish. Another way is to serve durum flour, soya, and egg spaghetti.

Plain spaghetti is made of durum flour and contains only about 12 percent protein. To increase its nutritional value the USDA, in cooperation with industry, carried on some experiments and came up with a spaghetti product that raised the protein content to 18.8 percent. The new product, which contains 12.5 percent soya, 5.5 percent egg, and 82 percent durum, is officially called durum flour, soya, and egg spaghetti. In taste and color it is almost the same as the old product, with a very slight soya taste added.

The new product may not arrive on American tables for some time as it is serving a real need in relief feeding in many areas.

LISTEN TO CONSUMER TIME

Every Saturday—Coast to Coast
over N. B. C. 12:15 p. m. EST
11:15 a. m. CST
10:15 a. m. MST
9:15 a. m. PST

Dramatizations, interviews, questions and answers on consumer problems. Tune in.
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